

# Rhodora

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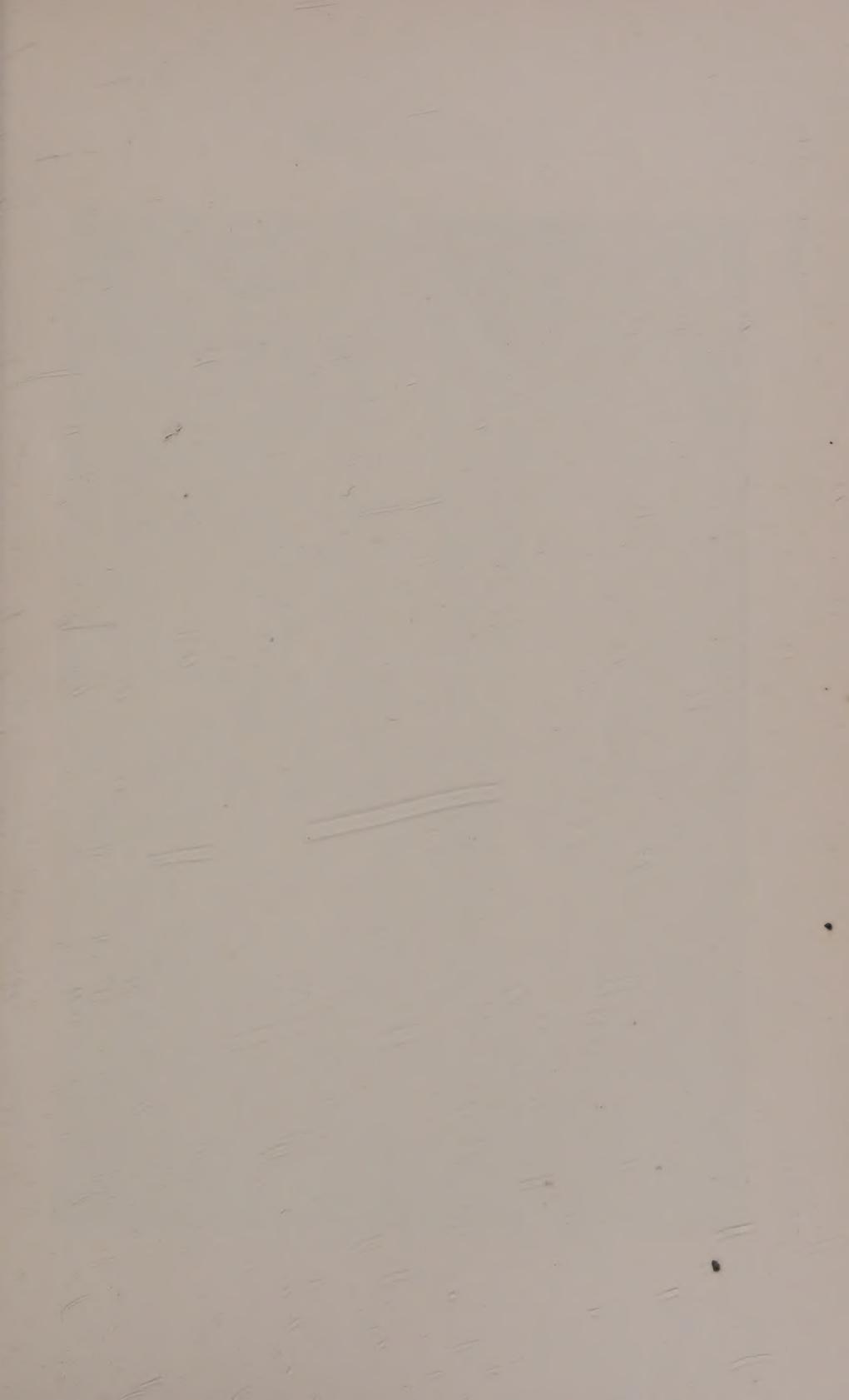
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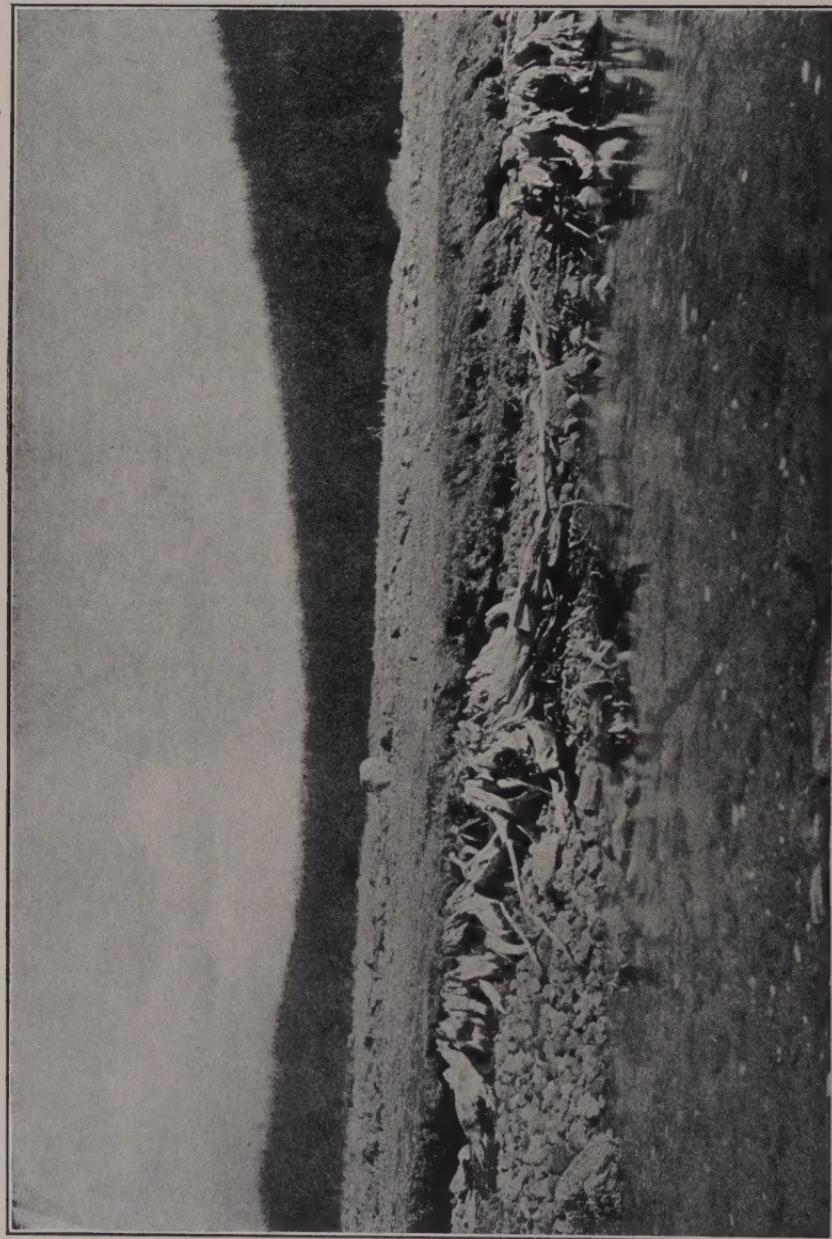
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SHORE LINE OF SUBMARINE CHAMAECYPARIS BOG (Woods Hole, Mass.) AT LOW TIDE.

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## THE SUBMARINE CHAMAECYPARIS BOG AT WOODS HOLE, MASSACHUSETTS.<sup>1</sup>

HARLEY HARRIS BARTLETT.

(Plate 82.)

THE bog which is described in this paper is of unusual interest from two stand-points,—to the botanist because it illustrates the genesis of a typical salt-marsh from a fresh water bog, to the geologist because it affords evidence of post-glacial subsidence in the Cape Cod district. It is probable that the origin of salt-marshes through invasion of fresh water bogs by the sea has not been infrequent on the New England coast, but with the exception of a recent paper by Penhallow, very little has been written on the subject. The question of post-glacial subsidence, on the other hand, has been much discussed. It hardly comes within the scope of this paper more than to state that geologists have shown that such a subsidence has taken place from Nova Scotia to New Jersey, and that it is still in progress. Along certain parts of the coast, however, evidence of subsidence has either never been carefully studied, or has been considered inadequate. For example, Penhallow<sup>2</sup> quotes Mr. Fuller of the United States Geological Survey as follows:—“Of the instances [of submerged stumps and peat masses] mentioned by Shaler and others in Massachusetts, those at Nantucket and Truro are perhaps the most prominent. The submerged stumps at Truro have, in part at least, reached their present position by undermining. I have not examined the Nantucket locality. There appears, however, on the whole, to be very little evidence of a post-glacial subsidence in this region, although Dr. T. A. Jaggar a few

<sup>1</sup> Published by permission of the Director of the U. S. Geological Survey.

<sup>2</sup> Trans. Roy. Soc. Can. 3d. Ser. vol. i, section iv (1907), p. 22.

years ago concluded from observations on wharves at Boston, that there had been a sinking of two feet during the past century." In view of this statement, the presentation of new evidence concerning subsidence in the Cape Cod district seems to be justified.

Before discussing either the formation of salt-marshes or the question of subsidence, it will be necessary to describe in brief the topography of the region about Woods Hole, and, rather more in detail, certain features in the historical development of the *Chamaecyparis* bogs which are found there.

Woods Hole lies at the southern extremity of the basal lobe of Cape Cod, on the Falmouth continuation of the Plymouth moraine. The glacial drift is for the most part very coarse, and readily permeable to water. The water table is reached at slight depths. Northward from the village the surface is characterized by a number of kettle holes,—steep-walled depressions in the till supposed to have been formed by the melting of isolated masses of buried or imbedded ice after the recession of the ice sheet. These are occupied either by ponds or by *Chamaecyparis* bogs, and are, of course, undrained. Their vegetation was described several years ago by C. H. Shaw.<sup>1</sup> Although his paper gives a good idea of the present flora of the bogs, it is inaccurate in so far as it relates to their development.

The typical ice-block hole has steep sides, and, comparatively speaking, a flat bottom. The vegetation which occupies it belongs to one of four types, which are determined by the relation of the water table to the surface of the ground. 1) The water table is far enough below the ground surface so that the mesophytic vegetation of hillsides and valleys becomes established. This condition is uncommon about Woods Hole because the water table is very close to the surface. 2) The water table practically coincides with the floor of the depression, so that conditions favor a hydrophytic vegetation. In holes of this type *Chamaecyparis* bogs have developed. 3) The water table intersects the ground level on the gently sloping floor of the hole. In this case there is a shallow pond at the center, with an annular area around it, where, as in a hole of the last type, the water table is near the surface of the ground and conditions are favorable for *Chamaecyparis*. 4) The water table intersects the steep sides of the depression. Here there is no habitat favorable for *Chamaecyparis*.

<sup>1</sup> The Development of Vegetation in the Morainal Depressions of the Vicinity of Woods Hole. *Bot. Gaz.* xxxiii, (1902) p. 437.

Moreover, since the usual kettle-hole pond has no outlet, great seasonal fluctuation in water level prevents mat-forming plants from getting a foothold. The pond in a depression of this type remains open, and usually has a gravelly beach.

Mr. Shaw's studies led him to believe that the Woods Hole Chamaecyparis bogs had been formed by the growth of *Chamaecyparis* on floating mats after they had already become firm enough to be occupied by a thicket of various shrubs. In accord with this idea, he termed the shrubs which are found in the cedar bogs, *Leucothoë*, *Kalmia angustifolia*, etc., relicts from a former thicket vegetation. In his paper three individual bogs are described, designated as "x," "y" and "z." Bog "x" differs from bogs "y" and "z" chiefly in having a pool at the center, which Mr. Shaw considers to have been a remnant of open water at the center of the pond when *Chamaecyparis* took possession of the mat. Soundings show the incorrectness of this conclusion. As a matter of fact, bogs "y" and "z" seem to have developed in depressions of the second type defined in the preceding paragraph, and bog "x" probably in a depression of the third type. In all three bogs, the peat contains *Chamaecyparis* stumps and roots *in situ* from top to bottom. There is no trace of a mat. Throughout their history, the increase in thickness of peat in these bogs has been accompanied by a corresponding rise of the water table, the mechanism of which is easily explained.

Let us assume, for the sake of argument, the existence of a flat water table beneath an uneven ground surface. Supposing that the capacity for loss of water at the ground surface through evaporation and plant transpiration were uniform over the whole area, then the amount of water lifted by capillarity from the water table to the ground surface and there lost by evaporation would vary inversely as the distance between the two surfaces. The limiting condition which would be approached through the operation of this one factor would be parallelism of water table and ground surface. Rain, falling upon the surface, would be, over a small area, evenly distributed. By far the larger part would sink into a porous soil at once. Since its movement would then be controlled only by gravitation, it would be added to the water table in a layer of uniform thickness, and would not tend to modify the parallelism of the water table and the ground surface. Two factors would tend to have a flattening effect on the water table,—the filling of its depressions by run-off water and the operation of

hydrostatic pressure. The latter would bring about final equilibrium. High levels of the water table would sink, and low levels rise, until the pressure gradient from high to low levels balanced the resistance offered by the soil to the passage of water through it from points at the high level to points at the low level. This would be the condition of equilibrium.

Applying these considerations to kettle holes, we see:— 1) that the water level in such a hole marks the lowest level in the water table of its drainage area, 2) that by replacing the kettle hole by a high hill, the same area might be made to coincide with the area of greatest elevation of the water table, and 3) that between these two conditions of the water table, any intermediate condition might be established by gradually filling the depression with a porous medium, such as soil or peat. The growth of a peat deposit in a kettle hole would continue until the water table lagged too far behind the bog level to provide sufficient moisture for preservation of peat from atmospheric oxidation.

We may now turn to the bog which it is the special object of this paper to describe.

As one walks along the shore from Woods Hole to Quamquisset, a salt-marsh is encountered which forms a prolongation of a slight lobe of the harbor. Its greatest width is about four hundred and fifty feet; its length perhaps twelve hundred feet. Seven hundred feet inland there is a constriction where the width is only about forty feet. So far as the vegetation is concerned, the seaward portion is a typical salt-meadow. Otherwise, however, it presents two anomalous features, in that it is neither penetrated by a tidal creek nor protected from the sea by a barrier beach. The explanation of this unusual topography is disclosed at low tide, in a line of stumps and prone logs along the water's edge,— the stumps in the position in which the trees grew. These show that our salt marsh is a peat bog which the sea has invaded, not a tidal flat built up through the usual agencies of salt-marsh formation. The stumps lie in the face of an escarpment only a foot or so high, formed by undercutting of the peat in which they are imbedded. At the surface the peat is protected from erosion by three or four inches of tough *Spartina* turf. At high tide this turf is submerged; at low tide a few feet of beach slopes gradually from the escarpment to the water. On the beach the peat is covered by a few inches of pebbles and boulders, thrown up by the waves. Plate 82 is from a photograph of the shore, taken at low tide.

Microscopical examination of wood from the stumps has shown that the trees were *Chamaecyparis thyoides*. Some of them, between three and four feet in diameter, were larger than any trees of this species now found in the vicinity of Woods Hole. The wood is still solid, and wonderfully preserved. When cut after the salt water has dried out, it is as fragrant as though fresh. Besides wood, the peat contains seeds of *Chamaecyparis* and countless little rod-like particles of resin which appear to have been derived from the glands on its scale-like leaves. Other identifiable remains are *Sphagnum*, seeds of an alder, and achenes of sedges. Throughout the entire marsh the character of the peat is the same. Wood is found at all depths. This fact, taken in conjunction with the general topography of the depression, leaves no doubt but that our marsh is a kettle hole *Chamaecyparis* bog drowned by the sea. This conclusion is borne out by a study of the zonation of vegetation in the marsh, for in the extreme landward part *Chamaecyparis* is still growing, and peat similar to that which underlies the salt-marsh is still forming. Soundings in this part of the bog show that its history as a *Chamaecyparis* bog has been unbroken. It has never been submerged below sea level, for there is no stratification of the peat which would indicate this. In recent times, however, there have been no trees in this part of the bog as large as those found at depths of three or four feet, which correspond in age to those exposed in the peat at the edge of the salt-marsh.

No doubt most botanists are familiar with Shaler's papers<sup>1</sup> in which the zonation of salt-marshes and the plant succession concomitant with their upward growth are described. *Zostera* and various sea weeds, growing densely on shallow bottoms, retard the velocity of tidal water so that it deposits among them part of the sediment which it carries in suspension. When by this means a tidal flat has been built up sufficiently, *Spartina glabra* establishes itself and collects sediment even more efficiently than the eel-grass. Finally, when the marsh has been built practically to high tide level, *Spartina glabra* is for the most part replaced by *Spartina patens* and *Juncus Gerardi*. A growing marsh shows these three zones, which are represented in a vertical section of a mature marsh by three corresponding strata.

<sup>1</sup> Sea-Coast Swamps of the Eastern United States. 6th Ann. Report U. S. Geol. Surv. (1884-85) p. 359.

Beaches and Tidal Marshes of the Atlantic Coast. National Geographic Monographs, i no. 4 (1895) p. 137.

The history of the Quamquisset marsh has been almost the reverse of this. The fresh water flora of a *Chamaecyparis* bog, which was cut into at one end by wave erosion, was killed back for a considerable distance from the sea. In consequence, the deposition of peat in this part of the bog was practically stopped, although it was not interrupted further inland. Ultimately a sloping surface was established. When, by subsidence of the whole area, the lowest part of this slope reached the high tide level, *Spartina patens* and *Juncus Gerardi* occupied it. After further subsidence, *Spartina glabra* replaced these two species, which moved farther up the slope. In this case it will be noticed that the order of the two zones from the sea landward is the same as in a typical salt-marsh, but that the vertical arrangement of the strata is just the reverse.

Under ordinary circumstances, the growth in thickness of *Spartina patens* turf is very rapid, and easily keeps pace with the lowering of a marsh surface by subsidence, but at Quamquisset Harbor very little silt is brought in by the inflowing tides and still less is derived from the surrounding slopes, so that the salt-marsh deposits consist of a densely matted mass of root stocks at most a few inches thick. In more typical salt-marshes the *Spartina* turf usually contains far more silt than organic matter, and is therefore less compact.

Between the two zones of markedly halophilous plants and the fresh bog vegetation above high tide level occur two zones the flora of which consists of facultative halophytes. Among them are halophytes which grow as well in a non-saline as in a saline situation (e. g. *Triglochin maritima*, *Ptilimnium capillaceum*, etc.) and, conversely, plants which are typical of our upland fields and woodland (e. g. *Aspidium Thelypteris*, *Rhus Toxicodendron*). Although these plants are subjected to great extremes of salinity (their varying ability to withstand which probably accounts for their zonation), the analytical data presented below show that in at least the upper of the two zones, the salinity at the height of the growing season is very slight indeed. In this connection the conclusions of Kearny<sup>1</sup> and of Olsson-Seffer<sup>2</sup> in regard to the salinity of soil water on sea beaches have an important bearing. Briefly summarized, they are as follows: — 1) that the salinity of the soil water of the middle and upper beaches is in reality very slight, but, as in the transition zones of the salt marsh, subject to great fluctuations; 2)

<sup>1</sup> Are Plants of Sea Beaches and Dunes true Halophytes? Bot. Gaz. xxxvii (1904), p. 424.

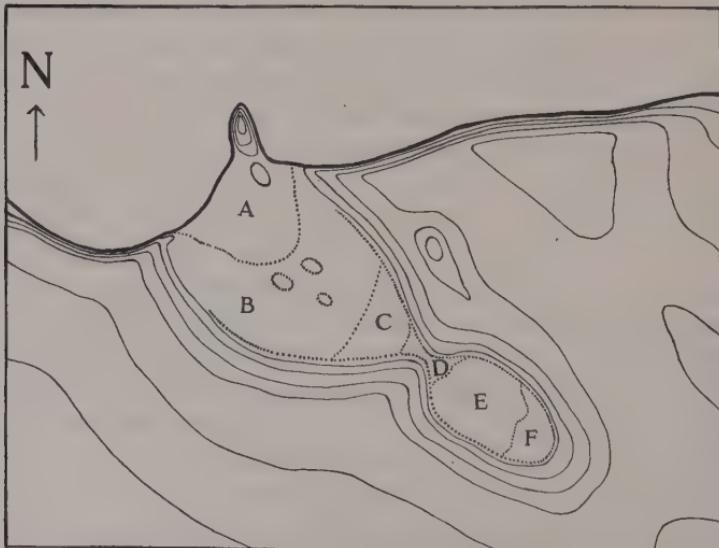
<sup>2</sup> Relation of Soil and Vegetation on Sandy Sea Shores. Bot. Gaz. xlvi (1909), p. 85.

that the plants of sea beaches are not generally halophytes, in the same sense that the plants of inland saline situations are, but are for the most part merely such plants of normally non-saline habitats as are able to withstand a high salt concentration without injury. These conclusions, considered in conjunction with the fact that a large proportion of the species of the beach and transition zone floras, although not necessarily always found within the limits of tide water, are, nevertheless, seldom found more than a few miles from the ocean, suggest that we may have to alter somewhat our conception of what constitutes a halophyte. The broad geographic ranges of the plants of these two transition zones (in part the same species as those which occur at the head of tide water in the region of the Bay of Fundy<sup>1</sup>) can not be correlated with their adaptability to growth in highly saline situations. If, however, we consider not absolute salinity but the ratio of saline constituents in the soil water, irrespective of absolute concentration, the possibility of correlating geographic range with physiological requirements becomes much greater. A moment's inspection of an analysis of an average soil water (in which the concentration of mineral salts is very slight), will show how comparatively small an admixture of sea water would suffice to bring the ratio of elements into approximate agreement with sea water. Further addition of sea water would increase absolute salinity, but would change ratios very slightly. May it not be a useful working hypothesis that sea water, in whatever dilution, is physiologically normal with regard to the plants of salt marshes and sea beaches, and that their usual local distribution is due altogether to the operation of factors other than chemical? The writer hopes to carry out some experimental work along the line of this suggestion. The constitution of soil water is influenced many miles inland by salt spray from the ocean. "The normal chlorine, or maximum proportion of chlorine (present as common salt or sodium chloride) which may exist in an uncontaminated water, usually varies inversely as the distance from the sea, the range for Massachusetts being from 2.42 parts per 100,000 at Provincetown....to 0.06 parts in Berkshire County. The normal chlorine not only depends upon proximity to the coast, but it is highest on the salient and most exposed parts of the coast, where the surf breaks heavily and the salt spray is wafted inland most freely."<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Ganong. The Vegetation of the Bay of Fundy Salt and Dyked Marshes; an Ecological Study. *Bot. Gaz.* xxxvi (1903), pp. 161, 280, 349, and 429.

<sup>2</sup> W. O. Crosby. U. S. Geol. Surv. Water Supply and Irrigation paper No. 114 (1905) p. 73.

The non-halophilous vegetation of the fresh part of the bog may be somewhat arbitrarily divided into two zones at the point where *Chamaecyparis* drops out of the flora. The zonation here appears to be due to the increasing quantity of salt in the bog water as high tide level is approached. The flora of the landward zone is essentially of the same composition as in those *Chamaecyparis* bogs of the region which are not open to the direct influence of the sea. Since certain of its species are more sensitive to the action of salt than others, they drop out of the flora at varying distances seaward. That portion of the fresh part of the bog between the *Chamaecyparis* zone and the transition zone is composed of certain relicts from the flora of the *Chamaecyparis* bog, together with invaders from other fresh water habitats.



The sketch map shows the six zones, designated, in order from the sea landward, A, B, C, D, E, and F. Plants which belong properly to none of these zones occur in standing water of the marginal fosse,— a well marked topographical feature in the fresh part of the bog, which is by no means obliterated in the upper part of the salt marsh.

In the following lists it has been convenient to group the plants of some of the zones according to manner of growth, as, for example, those of zone F into trees, shrubs, herbs and mosses. Where this has

been done, the species of each group are arranged as nearly as possible in the order of their abundance and the groups are separated by lines.

**A.** *Spartina glabra* var. *pilosa* Merr.

*Limonium carolinianum* (Walt.) Britton.

*Spergularia canadensis* (Pers.) Don.

*Salicornia mucronata* Bigel.

*Salicornia europaea* L.

*Salicornia ambigua* Michx.

At the edge of the marsh where the waves have thrown up a little gravel occur also:

*Spartina patens* (Ait.) Muhl.

*Distichlis spicata* (L.) Greene.

**B.** *Spartina patens* (Ait.) Muhl.

*Distichlis spicata* (L.) Greene.

*Juncus Gerardi* Lois.

*Limonium carolinianum* (Walt.) Britton.

*Triglochin maritima* L.

*Gerardia maritima* Raf.

Low muddy spots within this zone, from which tide water drains more slowly than from the *Spartina patens* turf, contain part or all of the following flora. They should perhaps be associated with zone A.

*Limonium carolinianum* (Walt.) Britton.

*Triglochin maritima* L.

*Plantago decipiens* Barneoud.

*Spergularia canadensis* (Pers.) Don.

*Gerardia maritima* Raf.

*Spartina glabra* var. *pilosa* Merr.

*Distichlis spicata* (L.) Greene.

*Scirpus campestris* var. *paludosus* (A. Nels.) Fernald.

At the landward edges of this zone, the water becomes much less salt. Here the *Spartina patens* and *Juncus Gerardi* grow much taller, and are associated with *Agrostis alba* var. *maritima* (Lam.) G. F. W. Mey.

**C** *Scirpus americanus* Pers.

*Triglochin maritima* L.

*Spartina patens* (Ait.) Muhl.

*Pluchea camphorata* (L.) DC.

*Ptilimnium capillaceum* (Michx.) Raf.

*Galium Claytoni* Michx.

*Cyperus Nuttallii* Eddy.

*Hypericum virginicum* L.

Whitened wrack, left by the winter storms, is covered with *Atriplex patula* var. *hastata* (L.) Gray. In unusually wet places, and near the marginal ditch, occur the following species:

*Eleocharis palustris* (L.) R. & S.

*Agrostis alba* var. *maritima* (Lam.) G. F. W. Mey.

*Cyperus Nuttallii* Eddy.

*Pluchea camphorata* (L.) DC.

*Juncus pelocarpus* Mey.

*Juncus acuminatus* Michx.

Two mosses which grow in the landward part of this zone, but are really characteristic of the next zone, are:

*Sphagnum* (near *Sphagnum dasypodium* Warnst.).

*Amblystegium riparium* (L.) Br. & Sch.

**D.** *Spartina Michauxiana* Hitchc.

*Scirpus americanus* Pers.

*Cyperus Nuttallii* Eddy.

*Rhus Toxicodendron* L.

*Ptilimnium capillaceum* (Mx.) Raf.

*Agrostis alba* var. *maritima* (Lam.) G. F. W. Mey.

*Hypericum virginicum* L.

*Polygonum hydropiperoides* Michx.

*Aspidium Thelypteris* (L.) Sw.

*Decodon verticillatus* (L.) Ell.

*Vaccinium macrocarpon* Ait.

*Polygala cruciata* L.

*Juncus canadensis* J. Gay.

*Pluchea camphorata* (L.) DC.

*Apios tuberosa* Moench.

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*Sphagnum* (near *Sphagnum dasypodium* Warnst.).

*Amblystegium riparium* (L.) Br. & Sch.

*Sphagnum* (near *Sphagnum obesum* (Wils.) Warnst.).

Along this zone, the marginal ditch contains:

*Typha latifolia* L.

*Agrostis alba* var. *maritima* G. F. W. Mey.

*Eleocharis palustris* (L.) R. & S.

**E.** *Clethra alnifolia* L.*Myrica carolinensis* Mill.*Rhus Toxicodendron* L.*Vaccinium macrocarpon* Ait.*Gaylussacia baccata* (Wang.) K. Koch.*Gaylussacia frondosa* (L.) T. & G.*Ribes oxyacanthoides* L.*Pyrus arbutifolia* var. *atropurpurea* (Britton) Rob.

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*Osmunda cinnamomea* L.*Aspidium Thelypteris* (L.) Sw.*Rhynchospora alba* (L.) Vahl.*Eriophorum virginicum* L.*Drosera rotundifolia* L.*Lysimachia terrestis* (L.) B. S. P.*Epilobium palustre* L.

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*Sphagnum imbricatum* var. *cristatum* f. *fuscescens* Warnst.*Sphagnum acutifolium* var. *rubrum* Brid.*Sphagnum amblyphyllum* var. *parvifolium* f. *tenue* sf. *capitatum* Grav.*Cladonia rangiferina* (L.) Web.*Cladonia alpestris* (L.) Rabenh.

Along this zone the marginal ditch contains:

*Sphagnum cymbifolium* var. *virescens* Warnst.*Typha latifolia* L.*Glyceria canadensis* (Michx.) Trin.*Decodon verticillatus* (L.) Ell.**F.** *Chamaecyparis thyoides* (L.) B. S. P.*Acer rubrum* L.*Betula alba* var. *cordifolia* (Regel) Fernald.*Salix rostrata* Richards.

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*Clethra alnifolia* L.*Myrica carolinensis* Mill.*Rhus Vernix* L.*Hamamelis virginiana* L.*Rhododendron viscosum* (L.) Torr.*Ilex verticillata* (L.) Gray.

*Ilex laevigata* (Pursh) Gray.

*Ilex glabra* (L.) Gray.

*Pyrus arbutifolia* var. *atropurpurea* (Britton) Rob.

*Vaccinium corymbosum* L.

*Viburnum cassinoides* L.

*Rhus Toxicodendron* L.

*Kalmia angustifolia* L.

*Lyonia ligustrina* (L.) DC.

---

*Osmunda cinnamomea* L.

*Aspidium Thelypteris* (L.) Sw.

---

*Sphagnum medium* var. *purpurascens* Warnst.

*Sphagnum flavicomans* (Card.) Warnst.

*Sphagnum imbricatum* var. *cristatum* f. *fuscescens* Warnst.

In the marginal fosse at the head of the bog grow:

*Sphagnum imbricatum* var. *affine* (R. & C.) Warnst.

*Sphagnum pulchricomum* v. *pulcherrimum* f. *sphaerocephalum* Warnst.

*Onoclea sensibilis* L.

The chief interest of the foregoing lists will lie in the fact that the chlorine content of the bog water was determined at the boundaries of the zones, and at the point of each zone where its characteristic flora was best developed. The few such data which have been published regarding littoral floras refer, for the most part, not to marshes or bogs but to the strand, where the conditions of plant growth are very different. The amount of sea water which would have to be mixed with pure water in order to bring the chlorine content of any given sample up to the value found by analysis was calculated on the basis of a chlorine content of 1.82% for sea water. The samples were collected along the longitudinal axis of the bog, from holes made by pushing a post into the peat to the desired depth. After the water in the holes had attained its level and had settled somewhat, a sample was taken from each with a pipette. Chlorine was determined by titration with tenth normal silver nitrate, using potassium chromate as an indicator. An obscure end point of the reaction due to the coffee color of the water was avoided by greatly diluting each sample and by making titrations by artificial light. It was not even necessary to filter the samples. In the following table of results, an asterisk

indicates that a zone is more or less regularly inundated by sea water at high tide. Appropriate values for sea water are not filled in, however, because the fresh water table underlies the whole marsh, and would, in fact, coincide with its surface if it were not for downward displacement by sea water left on the marsh after high tide. Even at the line of stumps along the water's edge, peat from below low tide level is appreciably less salty to the taste than that from higher up. It may be that the salt concentration in the water from which deep rooting species draw their supply is much less than in sea water.

Zone	Cl. concentration			% sea water			ΔOsmotic pressure in mm.		
	Sea- ward limit	Center	Inland limit	Sea- ward limit	Center	Inland limit	Sea- ward limit	Center	Inland limit
A	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
B	*	*	$\frac{n}{16}$	*	*	11.2	*	*	2110
C	$\frac{n}{16}$	$\frac{n}{383}$	$\frac{n}{375}$	11.2	0.51	0.48	2110	102	95
D	$\frac{n}{375}$	$\frac{n}{217}$	$\frac{n}{158}$	0.48	0.82	1.12	95	180	220
E	$\frac{n}{158}$	$\frac{n}{214}$	$\frac{n}{217}$	1.12	0.84	0.82	220	180	180
F	$\frac{n}{217}$	$\frac{n}{1000}$	$\frac{n}{1700}$	0.82	0.18	0.11	180	35	21

In explanation of this table little need be said. The first three columns give the amount of chlorine found on titration, the second three columns the corresponding admixture with sea water, assuming the normal chlorine of the ground water to be negligible, and the last three columns give the approximate increase in osmotic pressure which would correspond to such admixture. Perhaps the most remarkable fact shown is that in the transition zone, D, the salinity is less than in the next zone landward. Of course this would not be true all the year round. That such a condition may sometimes obtain is due to the fact that zone D marks the line of intersection of the fresh water table and the marsh surface. Along this line there is constant upward seepage of fresh water, which washes away salt spray which is blown upon the surface. In zone E, on the other hand, the water table is below the surface and all salt spray sinks in, to be removed only by downward displacement. There is furthermore constant evaporation of capillary water from the surface in zone E, which results in an accumulation of salts at the surface, during dry weather. It is obvious that from zone D landward the osmotic pressures are too slight to influence the distribution of the flora.

The evidence afforded by the Quamquisset bog in regard to coastal subsidence remains to be considered. A line of soundings along the longitudinal axis of the bog disclosed a brown Sphagnum peat containing so many stumps and prostrate logs of *Chamaecyparis* that it was only with difficulty that a spot could be found where the sampling apparatus<sup>1</sup> could be pushed down to the sandy bottom without encountering wood. At the narrowest part of the bog, the center of zone D, and from here all the way to the water's edge, where the stumps shown in Plate 82<sup>2</sup> have been exposed by erosion, there are large stumps and logs within a foot of the surface. In this part of the bog the soundings showed depths from eight to fourteen feet, but in most of the holes the peat sampler encountered not the bottom, but wood. A bottom of moderately fine sand, like that found in the upper part of the bog, was reached by a fourteen foot sounding made at the extreme seaward edge of the marsh, at a point outside the escarpment, where the surface is about two feet below extreme high tide level. This proves that there has been no undercutting of the peat by wave action. By wading into the water a short distance, at low tide, the peat bottom was found to be soft and yielding beneath the layer of gravel and boulders which the waves have thrown upon it. From zone D landward to the living *Chamaecyparis* trees the soundings varied from 7.5 to over 15 feet. Two or three feet of this depth is above high tide level. In this part of the bog, also, difficulty was found in reaching bottom on account of wood, which in several cases was encountered at a depth of 15 feet.

If we accept as the greatest depth of the bog the fourteen feet found at the very edge of the beach, and add to that depth two feet as the maximum height of the tide above the surface at the point where the sounding was made, we get sixteen feet as the depth to which peat extends below high tide level. It has already been pointed out that in *Chamaecyparis* bogs where the peat contains wood from bottom to top, the water table originally coincided with the floor of the depression. When peat commenced to form in the Quamquisset bog, the floor of the depression must have been at least at high tide level, i. e., sixteen feet higher than at present. We must admit, therefore, a subsidence

<sup>1</sup> The peat sampler used was that devised by Davis, described in Report Mich. Geol. Surv. for 1906, p. 317.

<sup>2</sup> This photograph is reproduced through the kindness of Mr. A. H. Moore, who made a special trip to Woods Hole in order to take it.

of at least sixteen feet, (probably more), since the first peat was laid down. Only two other suppositions could possibly be made: 1) that the *Chamaecyparis* grew in sixteen feet of water (!), or 2) that the water table sloped *away* from high tide level and was sixteen feet below it at a distance surely less than half a mile from the sea. The latter proposition is almost as absurd as the former, since in the loose drift deposits of the Cape Cod district the water table reaches the surface at approximately high tide level, and its gradient is always toward the sea.

In Shaw's paper (l. c.) bog "x" is described as a *Chamaecyparis* forest on a floating mat, covering a pond, the center of which is still open water. That this is not correct has already been pointed out. The condition of this bog is not that of youth, but of old age. On account of the fact that it is not far above sea level, the surface of the water table, approaching sea level as a limiting state, has remained almost stationary, while the land has subsided. The growth of peat has not kept pace with the (relative) rise of the water, and the result is that the bog is being drowned. The pond at the center is increasing in diameter and water stands two or three feet deep among the trees during much of the year. This bog is as truly a record of the subsidence of the region as the Quamquisset bog.

From a study of the Quamquisset bog a very rough idea can be gained of the rate at which subsidence has taken place. If we accept Shaler's estimate of a tenth of an inch a year as the rate of peat deposition (under varying conditions it may be much more or much less than this), a period of approximately 2300 years would have been required for the growth of sixteen feet of peat below high tide level (zones A-D) and three feet above high tide level (zones D-F). If we assume that during this time the subsidence has been the logical minimum, sixteen feet (i. e., that the bottom of the bog when peat began to form was at high tide level,—an improbable supposition) we obtain as the rate of subsidence eight and a half inches per century. This estimate accords with that reached by Prof. C. A. Davis, who has made investigations at other points on the New England Coast. A brief statement of his views in regard to the botanical and geological history of the New England salt-marshes has already appeared,<sup>1</sup> but a more complete account may be expected in an early number of *Rhodora*.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

<sup>1</sup> Bull. U. S. Geol. Surv. 376 (1909) pp. 19-20.

SOME POINTS OF NOMENCLATURE IN *TRIENTALIS*  
AND *RUBUS*.

W. H. BLANCHARD.

BOTANISTS seem to have overlooked the name *Trientalis borealis* given to the star-flower by Rafinesque in 1808 (Medical Repository of New York, p. 354). They still use the varietal name of Persoon made specific by Pursh in 1814, and the recent edition of Gray's manual designates it *Trientalis americana* (Pers.) Pursh so as to do justice to Persoon as well as to Pursh. Rafinesque did not describe it but referred as did Persoon and Pursh to Michaux's description. Michaux called it *T. europaea* L. and decided that it did not differ from the European plant sufficiently to be separated. He briefly gave the variation of the American plant from the European and this constituted his description. Persoon's description of his var. *americana* "fol. angusto-lanceolatis" is verbatim Michaux's, and Pursh simply added to Persoon's description "acuminatis obliqui."

In accordance with Article 49 of the Vienna Rules the name *Trientalis borealis* Raf. is the one which should be used for our American star-flower, since it was the earliest given to the plant in its now generally accepted specific rank.

The American red raspberry was first named as a variety of *Rubus idaeus* L. by Richardson in the Appendix to Franklin's Journey, 1st ed., 1823, p. 739. He called it var. *canadensis* and referred to Willdenow and Pursh, and in the second edition of Franklin's Journey, p. 747 he accepted Michaux's disposition of it as *R. strigosus* and wrote a full description of it making it certain just what plant he meant. This second edition was published in the same year as the first and differs from it only in the botanical appendix which is slightly changed and considerably enlarged, his description of *Rubus triflorus* and of several other new species appearing in it. Var. *canadensis* Rich. should therefore be substituted for the later var. *aculeatissimus* [C. A. Mey.] Regel & Tiling in the New Manual.

Rafinesque was again first in the field with a specific name for the running raspberry, *Rubus triflorus* Richardson (*R. americanus* (Pers.) Britton). In 1811, in the Medical Repository of New York, p. 333, he proposed *R. pubescens* as a name for the plant described by Michaux

as *R. saxatilis*, var. *canadensis*. *R. pubescens* Raf., being the earliest specific name for the plant in question, should, according to the above cited article of the Vienna Rules, stand as the valid designation of the species.

WESTMINSTER, VERMONT.

## EXCRETION OF SODIUM CHLORIDE BY SPARTINA GLABRA ALTERNIFLORA.

A. B. KLUGH.

WHILE at the Atlantic Coast Marine Biological Station at St. Andrews, New Brunswick, this summer (1909), I noticed that the leaves of *Spartina glabra alterniflora* (Loisel.) Merr., growing in a brackish marsh, had an abundance of crystals upon them. Upon scraping off some of these crystals and tasting them I found that they had the characteristic taste of Sodium chloride, and examination with a lens showed that they were cubes.

Although it struck me that the salt had been excreted by the leaves, I thought that (as it was at the time low tide, and the tide there rises from twenty-three to twenty-eight feet) possibly the plants were submerged at high-tide, and that the salt was deposited upon the leaves while they were submerged. So I returned to the marsh at high tide and found that the state of the tide made practically no difference in the level of the water in the marsh. I examined all the other species in the marsh carefully but failed to find any crystals upon them.

I then took some of the leaves to the Laboratory, cleaned them thoroughly, and placed the cut end of one in fresh-water and of the other in sea water over night. In the morning both had a large number of crystals upon them, there being however more upon the one placed in sea water than upon the other. That they formed at all upon the leaf placed in fresh water showed that there must have been a remarkable concentration of salt in the tissues of the leaf. I noticed that the great majority of the crystals were in the grooves of the leaves, there being however some upon the carinae.

I removed the leaf from the sea-water, cleaned it carefully, watched

it closely through a lens and soon observed minute droplets of solution appearing at intervals along the grooves. I held a portion of the leaf, upon which were several droplets, tightly upon my finger and noticed that the heat of my finger caused a little water to evaporate and that a cubical crystal formed, which was nearly as large as the droplet had been. I repeated this operation some twenty times, and found out how it was that some of the crystals were upon the carinae, for when a large drop evaporated it did not form a single large crystal, but formed four small ones, two of which were deposited upon the top of each ridge which bordered upon the groove.

Next I brought three entire plants to the Laboratory, cleaned one thoroughly of all crystals, and placed their roots in sea water. The next three days were foggy and the droplets excreted by the specimen which I had cleaned off remained as such, while the crystals on the other two specimens deliquesced. But on the fourth day the weather was dry and crystals appeared abundantly on all three plants.

I again cleaned off a leaf of the plant from which I had previously removed the crystals, and placing it over my finger watched the droplets emerge and the crystals form.

I then tested some of the juice of the leaf with  $\text{AgNO}_3$  and got a heavy white precipitate which was insoluble in  $\text{HNO}_3$ , thus showing an abundance of chlorides. The solution excreted by the leaf gave an even heavier precipitate. Further than this very rough analysis I was unable, on account of lack of reagents, to carry my chemical investigations.

Some portions of leaves I fixed in chromo-acetic solution, brought them to our Botanical Laboratory, imbedded in paraffin and made sections in three planes to see if water-pores were present. I found that they were not, but that stomata were abundant and had very large intercellular spaces beneath them. The stomata are situated mostly near the bottom of the grooves. The grooves are very deep and have numerous small epidermal projections upon their walls.

BOTANICAL DEPARTMENT,

Queen's University, Kingston, Canada.

## MATRICARIA INODORA, VAR. SALINA IN MASSACHUSETTS.

WALTER DEANE.

ON October 4, 1909, in company with Mr. C. F. Batchelder, I made a botanical trip to the extensive stretch of made land in South Boston, familiarly known as the "South Boston Flats." This large area is bordered by railroad tracks and grain elevators and is bounded on one side by the harbor. It is therefore a famous spot for introduced plants and has been a favorite mecca for botanists. Among other interesting plants which we found was a *Matricaria* which has been growing there for a number of years and is extremely abundant. Mr. C. E. Perkins collected it as early as 1882. It has been known as *Matricaria inodora* L. by the various collectors.

I later submitted specimens of this plant to Prof. M. L. Fernald who noticed that it differed from typical *Matricaria inodora* and, on comparison, found it to be *M. inodora* L., var. *salina* (Wallr.) DC. This variety was first described by Wallroth in *Schedulæ Criticæ de Plantis Floræ Halensis selectis*, in 1822, page 485, as "*Pyrethrum inodorum* β. *salinum* W. pinnis foliolorum linearibus confertissimis brevibus mucronatis subtus parce pilosis," etc. De Candolle in the *Prodromus*, VI, 1837, page 52, refers to the plant as a variety of *Matricaria inodora* L. with the following description, "caule rubente, foliorum lobis brevioribus crassiusculis confertis." The short, crowded, thick lobes of the leaves readily distinguish it from the typical *M. inodora* which has much longer, less crowded, and thinner lobes of the leaves. Measurements of the ultimate lobes of typical leaves of European specimens show the average length to be 9.4 mm. for *M. inodora* and 3.3 mm. for *M. inodora*, var. *salina*. The variety, like true *M. inodora*, is an annual and is now generally distinguished by European authors from *M. maritima* L., a perennial species with which *M. inodora*, var. *salina* was formerly confused.

*Matricaria inodora* L., var. *salina* (Wallr.) DC. inhabits the saline regions of Europe and is now reported apparently for the first time from America. It is interesting to note that plants occurring in the halophytic regions of Europe are adapting themselves to similar conditions in this country, as is illustrated by the plant under consideration and

also by *Bassia hirsuta* (L.) Aschers, growing abundantly on the South Boston Flats and recorded in RHODORA, xi. 120. 1909, by Mr. C. H. Knowlton.

CAMBRIDGE, MASSACHUSETTS.

### ERRATA.

Page 11, line 26; before *sericea* insert *S.*

- “ 37, “ 15; for 45 read 46.
- “ 41, “ 9; “ *E. articulata* read *E. articulatum*.
- “ 45, “ 19; “ **E.** SATIVUM read **E.** SATIVA.
- “ 46, “ 30; “ *Parnassia grandiflora* read *Parnassia grandifolia*.
- “ 50, “ 13; “ *LINOIDES* R. read *LINOIDES* Roth.
- “ 52, “ 6; “ *GRACILIOR* read *GRACILIUS*.
- “ 56, “ 21; “ 49 read 48.
- “ “ 22; “ 51 read 50.
- “ 57, “ 22; “ Benth read Bieb.
- “ 59, “ 26; “ *A. depaup.* read *A. parviceps*.
- “ 61, “ 14; “ *tennesseensis* READ *vimineus*.
- “ 64, “ 35; “ *Vol. 12* read *Vol. 11*.
- “ 97, “ 25; “ *V. OXYCOCCUS* read *V. OXYCOCOS*.
- “ 101, “ 5; “ *FRAGILE* read *FRAGILIS*.
- “ 131, “ 7; “ *Sisyrinchium* read *Sisyrinchium*.
- “ 136, “ 8; “ *vulgaris* read *rivularis*.
- “ 137, “ 35; “ *B* read *B.*
- “ 162, “ 38; “ *G. E. Dinsmore* read *J. E. Dinsmore*.
- “ 163, “ 13; “ *G. E. Dinsmore* read *J. E. Dinsmore*.
- “ 176, “ 39; “ *cinnamomea* read *cinnamomea*.
- “ 197, “ 10; “ *Ravenellii* read *Ravenelii*.

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